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ON SOME GENERALIZATION OF THE GOŁĄB–SCHINZEL EQUATION

AGATA NOWAK

Abstract. Inspired by a problem posed by J. Matkowski in [10] we investigate the equation

$$f(p(x, y)(xf(y) + y) + (1 - p(x, y))(yf(x) + x)) = f(x)f(y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R},$$

where functions $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are assumed to be continuous.

1. Introduction

The composite functional equation

$$(1) \quad f(x + yf(x)) = f(x)f(y), \quad x, y \in X,$$

where X is a real linear space and $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an unknown function, is the well-known Gołąb–Schinzel equation. For details concerning this equation, its origin, generalizations and applications, we refer e.g. to J. Aczél [1], J. Aczél [2, pp. 132–135], J. Aczél, J. Dhombres [3, Chapter 19], J. Aczél, S. Gołąb [4], S. Gołąb, A. Schinzel [5], K. Baron [6], N. Brillouet, J. Dhombres [7], J. Brzdęk [8], P. Javor [9], S. Wołodźko [12].

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There are several papers devoted to some generalizations of equation (1), cf. a survey paper Brzdęk [8], Mureńko [11], J. Matkowski [10]. The last one inspired our paper. In [10] the following generalization of (1) is considered:

$$(2) \quad f(p(xf(y) + y) + (1 - p)(yf(x) + x)) = f(x)f(y), \quad x, y \in X.$$

Roughly speaking, it turns out that the continuous solutions of (2) are the same as the continuous solutions of (1). To be more precise, the main result of J. Matkowski [10] reads as follows:

THEOREM 1 ([10]). *Let X be a real linear topological space and $p \in \mathbb{R}$ be fixed. A continuous function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies the equation*

$$f(p(xf(y) + y) + (1 - p)(yf(x) + x)) = f(x)f(y), \quad x, y \in X,$$

if, and only if, either

$$f(x) = 0, \quad x \in X,$$

or there is an $x^ \in X^* \setminus \{0\}$ such that*

$$f(x) = 1 + x^*(x), \quad x \in X,$$

or $p \in [0, 1]$ and there exists $x^ \in X^* \setminus \{0\}$ such that*

$$f(x) = \sup(1 + x^*(x), 0), \quad x \in X.$$

Let a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous with respect to each variable. Let $F_{f,p}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by the formula

$$(3) \quad F_{f,p}(x, y) = p(x, y)(xf(y) + y) + (1 - p(x, y))(yf(x) + x), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

In this note we consider the generalization of (2) of the form:

$$(4) \quad f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The following question naturally arises and was posed in [10]: what are the solutions of equation (4)? Our main result (Theorem 4) states that any real continuous function f fulfilling equation (4) is also of one of the forms described in the Theorem 1.

2. Technical lemmas

For arbitrary function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ let denote

$$A_c^f = f^{-1}(\{c\})$$

and define $g_f: \mathbb{R} \setminus A_1^f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$g_f(x) = \frac{x}{1 - f(x)}.$$

2.1. Part I: We establish a form of the function f on the set $f^{-1}((-1, 1))$ and a form of the set A_0^f

LEMMA 1. *Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). Then*

- (1) $\prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 + f(x)^{2^j}) = \frac{1 - f(x)^{2^n}}{1 - f(x)}, \quad x \notin A_1^f, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$
- (2) $f(\prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 + f(x)^{2^j})x) = f(x)^{2^n}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$

PROOF. By induction and by using $F_{f,p}(z, z) = z(1 + f(z))$ with

$$z = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 + f(x)^{2^j})x. \quad \square$$

LEMMA 2. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). Then $g_f(f^{-1}((-1, 1))) \subseteq A_0^f$.*

PROOF. Take arbitrary $x_0 \in f^{-1}((-1, 1))$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} f(x_0)^{2^n} = 0$, so Lemma 1 and continuity of f imply that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} f(x_0)^{2^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} f\left(\prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 + f(x_0)^{2^j})x_0\right) \\ &= f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} (1 + f(x_0)^{2^j})x_0\right) \\ &= f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^n}}{1 - f(x_0)}x_0\right) = f\left(\frac{x_0}{1 - f(x_0)}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $g_f(x_0) \in A_0$. \square

LEMMA 3. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). Then $f(0) = 0$ or $f(0) = 1$

PROOF. Put $x = y = 0$ in (4) in order to obtain $f(0) = f(0)^2$. \square

LEMMA 4. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). If there exists $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x_0) = -1$, then $f(0) = 1$.

PROOF. Put $x = y = x_0$ in (4) in order to get

$$f(0) = f((1 + f(x_0))x_0) = f(x_0)^2 = (-1)^2 = 1. \quad \square$$

LEMMA 5. Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). If f is not identically equal zero, then $f(0) = 1$.

PROOF. Assume, in search of a contradiction, that f is not identically equal to 0 and $f(0) = 0$ (cf. Lemma 3). Let $S_0 = (A, B)$ with some $-\infty \leq A < 0 < B \leq \infty$ be a component of $f^{-1}((-1, 1))$ which contains 0. Then from Lemma 2 it follows that $g_f(S_0) \subseteq A_0^f$ and $0 = g_f(0) \in g_f(S_0)$. Moreover, g_f is continuous on $f^{-1}((-1, 1))$. So, $g_f(S_0)$ is an interval contained in A_0^f . Since $g_f(0) = 0$, we have $g_f(S_0) = [C, D]$ with some $C \leq 0 \leq D$. If $C = 0$, then for every $x \in S_0$ we have $g_f(x) = \frac{x}{1-f(x)} \geq 0$, which can occur (in the set $f^{-1}((-1, 1))$) only when $x \geq 0$ for every $x \in S_0$, which is impossible since S_0 is open and contains 0. Analogically, $D = 0$ can be excluded. Thus $C < 0 < D$ and at least one of numbers C, D is real (because $f \not\equiv 0$). If for example $D \in \mathbb{R}$ then for every $x \in S_0$ we have $\frac{x}{1-f(x)} \leq D$, which is equivalent to $f(x) \leq 1 - \frac{x}{D}$. Regarding $f(x) \in (-1, 1)$ for every $x \in (A, B)$, we conclude that $B \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(B) = -1$. Then from Lemma 4 we get $f(0) = 1$, which contradicts with our assumption. \square

LEMMA 6. Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). Then set A_0^f is a closed interval or is empty.

PROOF. Assume that $A_0^f \neq \emptyset$. If f is identically equal to 0, then $A_0^f = \mathbb{R}$ and the thesis holds.

If $f \not\equiv 0$, then $f(0) = 1$ (cf. Lemma 5). Let $x_0, x_1 \in A_0^f$, $x_0 < x_1$. For every $y \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$f(F_{f,p}(x_0, y)) = f(x_0)f(y) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(F_{f,p}(y, x_1)) = f(y)f(x_1) = 0,$$

so $F_{f,p}(x_0, \mathbb{R})$ and $F_{f,p}(\mathbb{R}, x_1)$ are intervals contained in A_0^f . Obviously,

$$F_{f,p}(0, x_1) = x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{f,p}(x_0, 0) = x_0.$$

Furthermore, $F_{f,p}(x_0, x_1) \in F_{f,p}(x_0, \mathbb{R}) \cap F_{f,p}(\mathbb{R}, x_1)$. Thus,

$$[x_0, x_1] \subseteq F_{f,p}(x_0, \mathbb{R}) \cup F_{f,p}(\mathbb{R}, x_1) \subseteq A_0^f.$$

Therefore A_0^f is an interval. It is closed, since $A_0^f = f^{-1}(\{0\})$ and the function f is continuous. \square

LEMMA 7. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If f is not identically equal to 0, then A_0^f is the empty set and $f(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$ or there exists $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^*$ such that either*

- (1) $\alpha < 0$, $A_0^f = (-\infty, \alpha]$ and $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x \in (\alpha, 0)$, $f(x) \geq 1$ for $x \geq 0$
or
- (2) $\alpha < 0$, $A_0^f = \{\alpha\}$ and $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x \in (2\alpha, 0)$, $f(x) \leq -1$ for $x \leq 2\alpha$,
 $f(x) \geq 1$ for $x \geq 0$ or
- (3) $\alpha > 0$, $A_0^f = [\alpha, +\infty)$ and $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x \in (0, \alpha)$, $f(x) \geq 1$ for $x \leq 0$
or
- (4) $\alpha > 0$, $A_0^f = \{\alpha\}$ and $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x \in (0, 2\alpha)$, $f(x) \leq -1$ for $x \geq 2\alpha$
and $f(x) \geq 1$ for $x \leq 0$.

PROOF. Assume in search of a contradiction that $A_0^f = [\alpha, \beta]$ with some $-\infty < \alpha < \beta < +\infty$ (cf. Lemma 6).

If $f(x) > 0$ for $x > \beta$, $f(x) < 0$ for $x < \alpha$ (the case $f(x) < 0$ for $x > \beta$, $f(x) > 0$ for $x < \alpha$ can be treated similarly), then for $x, y < \alpha$ we have $f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y) > 0$, so $F_{f,p}(x, y) > \beta$. Hence for every $x < \alpha$ we get

$$F_{f,p}(x, \alpha) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \alpha^-} F_{f,p}(x, y) \geq \beta$$

and

$$\alpha = F_{f,p}(\alpha, \alpha) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \alpha^-} F_{f,p}(x, \alpha) \geq \beta,$$

which is a contradiction with $\alpha < \beta$.

If $f(x) < 0$ for $x \in (-\infty, \alpha) \cup (\beta, +\infty)$, then for $x, y < \alpha$, we have $f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y) > 0$, which is impossible.

To finish the proof of the first part of the thesis it is enough to consider the case $f(x) > 0$ for $x \in (-\infty, \alpha) \cup (\beta, +\infty)$. Let (γ, δ) be such a component of

$f^{-1}((-1, 1))$ that $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq (\gamma, \delta)$. From Lemma 2 it follows that $g_f((\gamma, \delta)) \subseteq [\alpha, \beta]$. Hence for $x \in (\gamma, \delta)$ we have

$$\alpha f(x) \geq \alpha - x \quad \text{and} \quad \beta f(x) \leq \beta - x.$$

If $\alpha < 0$, then $f(x) \leq 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$, so for $x \in (\gamma, \alpha)$ we would have $f(x) < 0$, which contradicts with the assumption.

If $\alpha \geq 0$, then $\beta > 0$ and $f(x) \leq 1 - \frac{x}{\beta}$. Thus, for $x \in (\beta, \delta)$ we would have $f(x) < 0$, which is again a contradiction with the assumption. Therefore either $\alpha = \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ or $\alpha = -\infty$ or $\beta = +\infty$.

If $A_0^f = \emptyset$, then from Lemma 2 it follows that $f^{-1}((-1, 1)) = \emptyset$. Lemma 3 and the continuity of f imply $f(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$.

Now assume that $A_0^f \neq \emptyset$ and fix $x_0 \in f^{-1}((-1, 1)) \setminus A_0^f$. Then according to Lemma 2 $g_f(x_0) \in A_0^f$. If $A_0^f = \{\alpha\}$, then $g_f(x_0) = \alpha$, so $f(x_0) = 1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}$. If $A_0^f = (-\infty, \alpha]$, then $g_f(x_0) \leq \alpha$, so $f(x_0) \geq 1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}$ ($\alpha < 0$ because $f(0) = 1$). Hence $f(x_0) = 1 - \frac{x_0}{c}$ with some $c \leq \alpha$. Assume in search of a contradiction that $c < \alpha$. From Lemma 1 it follows that

$$f\left(x_0 \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^n}}{1 - f(x_0)}\right) = f(x_0)^{2^n}$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus $f\left(x_0 \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^n}}{1 - f(x_0)}\right) > 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. On the other hand,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_0 \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^n}}{1 - f(x_0)} = \frac{x_0}{1 - f(x_0)} = c < \alpha,$$

so there exist $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_0 \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^N}}{1 - f(x_0)} < \alpha$. Then

$$f\left(x_0 \frac{1 - f(x_0)^{2^N}}{1 - f(x_0)}\right) = f(x_0)^{2^N} = 0,$$

which is not possible. To conclude, for every $x_0 \in f^{-1}((-1, 1)) \setminus A_0^f$ we have $f(x_0) = 1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}$.

Furthermore, if $A_0^f = \{\alpha\}$ and $\alpha < 0$, then for every $x_0 \in f^{-1}((-1, 1)) \setminus \{\alpha\}$ we have both $f(x_0) = 1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}$ and $f(x_0) \in (-1, 1)$, which is possible if and only if $x_0 \in (2\alpha, 0)$. Hence $f^{-1}((-1, 1)) = (2\alpha, 0)$. Moreover, $f(2\alpha) = -1$, $f(0) = 1$, so $f((-\infty, 2\alpha]) \subseteq (-\infty, -1]$, $f([0, +\infty)) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$. If $A_0^f = \{\alpha\}$ and $\alpha > 0$, then similarly as above we get $f((-\infty, 0]) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$ and $f([2\alpha, +\infty)) \subseteq (-\infty, -1]$.

Finally, we consider the case of $A_0^f = (-\infty, \alpha]$ with $\alpha < 0$ (the case of $A_0^f = [\alpha, +\infty)$ with $\alpha > 0$ may be analyzed analogically). For every $x_0 \in f^{-1}((-1, 1)) \setminus (-\infty, \alpha]$ we have both $f(x_0) = 1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}$ and $f(x_0) \in (-1, 1)$, which is possible if and only if $x_0 \in (\alpha, 0)$. Hence $f^{-1}((-1, 1)) = (-\infty, 0)$ and $f([0, +\infty)) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$. \square

2.2. Part II: We prove that if $f \not\equiv 0$, $f \not\equiv 1$ is a solution of (4), then $A_1^f = \{0\}$, so either f takes values greater than 1 for positive arguments and smaller than 1 for negative arguments or the reverse

LEMMA 8. *Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). The set A_1^f is a semigroup.*

PROOF. Put in (4) $x, y \in A_1^f$ in order to obtain $f(x + y) = 1$. \square

LEMMA 9. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If for some $\varepsilon > 0$ we have $f((-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$ or $f((-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)) \subseteq (0, 1]$, then $f \equiv 1$.*

PROOF. Assume that $f((-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$. Observe that $F_{f,p}(0, x) = x = F_{f,p}(x, 0)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Continuity of $F_{f,p}(\cdot, \varepsilon)$ and $F_{f,p}(\cdot, -\varepsilon)$ at the point 0 implies that there exists $\delta > 0$, $\delta < \varepsilon$ such that for every $|x| < \delta$ we have

$$|F_{f,p}(x, \varepsilon) - \varepsilon| = |F_{f,p}(x, \varepsilon) - F_{f,p}(0, \varepsilon)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

and

$$|F_{f,p}(x, -\varepsilon) + \varepsilon| = |F_{f,p}(x, -\varepsilon) - F_{f,p}(0, -\varepsilon)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Hence

$$F_{f,p}(x, \varepsilon) \in \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \frac{3\varepsilon}{2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad F_{f,p}(x, -\varepsilon) \in \left(-\frac{3\varepsilon}{2}, -\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right), \quad |x| < \delta.$$

For every $|x| < \delta$ from Darboux property of function $F_{f,p}(x, \cdot)$ it follows that there exists $y(x) \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ such that $F_{f,p}(x, y(x)) = 0$. Therefore from (4) we have

$$1 = f(0) = f(F_{f,p}(x, y(x))) = f(x)f(y(x)) \geq 1 \quad \text{for } |x| < \delta$$

and equality holds if and only if $f(x) = f(y(x)) = 1$. Thus we have proved that $(-\delta, \delta) \subseteq A_1^f$. However, the set A_1^f is a semigroup (cf. Lemma 8), so $\mathbb{R} = A_1^f$. \square

COROLLARY 1. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If $f^{-1}((-1, 1)) = \emptyset$, then $f \equiv 1$.*

PROOF. If $f^{-1}((-1, 1)) = \emptyset$, then obviously $A_0^f = \emptyset$, so from Lemma 7 it follows that $f(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$. Therefore, Lemma 9 implies that $f \equiv 1$. \square

LEMMA 10. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). If 0 is a leftside accumulation point (rightside accumulation point) of A_1^f , then $f([0, +\infty)) = \{1\}$ ($f((-\infty, 0]) = \{1\}$).*

PROOF. Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in (A_1^f)^\mathbb{N}$ be a decreasing sequence of points tending to 0. Fix $g > 0$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists $l(n) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(l(n) - 1)x_n < g \leq l(n)x_n$. Then $|l(n)x_n - g| < x_n$, so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} l(n)x_n = g.$$

Moreover, A_1^f is a semigroup, so $l(n)x_n \in A_1^f$. Thus, A_1^f is dense in $[0, +\infty)$. On the other hand, $A_1^f = f^{-1}(\{1\})$ is closed as a counterimage of a closed set by a continuous function. Hence $f([0, +\infty)) = \{1\}$. \square

COROLLARY 2. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is satisfied, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f((0, \varepsilon)) \subseteq (1, +\infty)$. If condition (3) or (4) from Lemma 7 is satisfied, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f((-\varepsilon, 0)) \subseteq (1, +\infty)$.*

PROOF. Assume that condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled. From Lemma 7 follows that $f((-\infty, 0)) \subseteq (-\infty, 1)$, $f([0, +\infty)) \subseteq [1, +\infty)$. If the thesis of the corollary did not hold, then 0 would be a righthand side accumulation point of the set A_1^f and Lemma 10 would imply $A_1^f = [0, +\infty)$. Then we would have $f(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq (-\infty, 1]$ and from Lemma 9 we would get $f \equiv 1$, which is a contradiction with the assumption of the lemma.

The proof is similar for condition (3) or (4). \square

LEMMA 11. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f((0, +\infty)) \subseteq (1, +\infty)$. If condition (3) or (4) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f((-\infty, 0)) \subseteq (1, +\infty)$.*

PROOF. Without loss of generality we can assume that condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is satisfied.

Assume for contradiction that $(0, +\infty) \cap A_1^f \neq \emptyset$. From Corollary 2 it follows that $\alpha = \inf((0, +\infty) \cap A_1^f) > 0$. Define $h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by the formula $h(x) = x(1 + f(x))$. Then $h([0, \alpha])$ is a compact interval which contains $h(0) = 0$ and $h(\alpha) = 2\alpha$. If there is $\beta \in (\alpha, 2\alpha)$ such that $f(\beta) = 1$, then $\beta = h(\gamma)$ with some $\gamma \in (0, \alpha)$ and according to (4) we would have

$$1 = f(\beta) = f(h(\gamma)) = f(\gamma)^2,$$

which is equivalent to $f(\gamma) = 1$ (cf. Lemma 7). However, this is a contradiction with the definition of α . Thus we proved that $f((\alpha, 2\alpha)) \subseteq (1, +\infty)$.

Obviously $h(\alpha) = 2\alpha$, $h(2\alpha) = 4\alpha$, so $[2\alpha, 4\alpha] \subseteq h([\alpha, 2\alpha])$. Hence $3\alpha = h(\gamma)$ with some $\gamma \in (\alpha, 2\alpha)$ and $f(3\alpha) = f(h(\gamma)) = f(\gamma)^2 > 1$. On the other hand $3\alpha \in A_1^f$, because A_1^f is a semigroup (cf. Lemma 8). \square

2.3. Part III: We establish the form of function f on the set

$$f^{-1}(\mathbb{R} \setminus (-1, 1))$$

THEOREM 2. Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x > 0$. If condition (3) or (4) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x < 0$.

PROOF. Without loss of generality we can assume that condition (1) or (2) from Lemma 7 is satisfied.

Equation (4), Lemma 11 and Lemma 7 imply that for arbitrary $x > 0$ there exists exactly one $k(x) \in (\alpha, 0)$ such that $f(x)f(k(x)) = 1$. Thus, $f(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - k(x)}$ for every $x > 0$.

Let $x > 0$, $\alpha < y < 0$. Then $f(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - k(x)}$, $f(y) = \frac{\alpha - y}{\alpha}$, so $f(x)f(y) = \frac{\alpha - y}{\alpha - k(x)}$. Therefore, from Lemma 7 for $x > 0$, $y < 0$ we have

$$F_{f,p}(x, y) \in (\alpha, 0) \iff f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y) \in (0, 1) \iff y \in (\alpha, k(x))$$

and

$$F_{f,p}(x, y) > 0 \iff f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y) > 1 \iff y \in (k(x), 0).$$

Fix $x > 0$, $y \in (\alpha, k(x))$. Then

$$f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = 1 - \frac{F_{f,p}(x, y)}{\alpha},$$

$$\begin{aligned}
F_{f,p}(x, y) &= p(x, y) \left(x \left(1 - \frac{y}{\alpha} \right) + y - y \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - k(x)} - x \right) + y \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - k(x)} + x \\
&= p(x, y) \frac{y(xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha k(x))}{\alpha(\alpha - k(x))} + \frac{\alpha x + \alpha y - xk(x)}{\alpha - k(x)}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = 1 - p(x, y) \frac{y(xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha k(x))}{\alpha^2(\alpha - k(x))} + \frac{xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha y}{\alpha(\alpha - k(x))},$$

so

$$1 - p(x, y) \frac{y(xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha k(x))}{\alpha^2(\alpha - k(x))} + \frac{xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha y}{\alpha(\alpha - k(x))} = \frac{\alpha - y}{\alpha - k(x)}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha^2(\alpha - k(x)) - p(x, y)y(xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha k(x)) \\
+ \alpha(xk(x) - \alpha x - \alpha y) = \alpha^2(\alpha - y),
\end{aligned}$$

which implies

$$p(x, y)y(\alpha x + \alpha k(x) - xk(x)) = \alpha(\alpha x + \alpha k(x) - xk(x)).$$

Therefore, either

$$k(x) = \frac{\alpha x}{x - \alpha}, \text{ which is equivalent to } f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha},$$

or

$$p(x, y) = \frac{\alpha}{y}.$$

Assume that there exists a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ decreasing to 0 such that $f(x_n) \neq 1 - \frac{x_n}{\alpha}$. Fix $y_0 \in (\alpha, 0)$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} k(x) = 0$, there is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $n \geq N$ we have $y_0 \in (\alpha, k(x_n))$, so $p(x_n, y_0) = \frac{\alpha}{y_0}$. Then

$$p(0, y_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} p(x_n, y_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\alpha}{y_0} = \frac{\alpha}{y_0}.$$

Thus,

$$p(0, 0) = \lim_{y_0 \rightarrow 0^-} p(0, y_0) = +\infty.$$

This contradiction proves that such a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ does not exist. So, there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for every $x \in [0, \varepsilon]$.

If $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$, $f(y) = 1 - \frac{y}{\alpha}$, then $F_{f,p}(x, y) = x + y - \frac{xy}{\alpha}$ and

$$f(F_{f,p}(x, y)) = f(x)f(y) = 1 - \frac{x + y - \frac{xy}{\alpha}}{\alpha} = 1 - \frac{F_{f,p}(x, y)}{\alpha}.$$

Therefore, $f(z) = 1 - \frac{z}{\alpha}$ for every $z \in F_{f,p}([0, \varepsilon]^2)$. In particular, for $x \in [0, \varepsilon]$ we have $F_{f,p}([0, \varepsilon]^2) \ni F_{f,p}(x, x) = x(1 + f(x)) > 2x$, so $[0, 2\varepsilon] \subseteq F_{f,p}([0, \varepsilon]^2)$ and $f(z) = 1 - \frac{z}{\alpha}$ for every $z \in [0, 2\varepsilon]$. Repeating this reasoning, we get that $f(z) = 1 - \frac{z}{\alpha}$ for every $z > 0$. \square

THEOREM 3. *Suppose that a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous with respect to each variable satisfy equation (4). If condition (2) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x < 0$. If condition (4) from Lemma 7 is fulfilled, then $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ for $x > 0$.*

PROOF. Without loss of generality we can assume that condition (2) from Lemma 7 is satisfied.

Suppose that there exist $x < 2\alpha$ such that $f(x) < -1$. Then $x(f(x) + 1) > 0$, so from Theorem 2 and (4) we have

$$1 - \frac{x(1 + f(x))}{\alpha} = f(x(1 + f(x))) = f(x)^2,$$

so $\alpha f(x)^2 + xf(x) + x - \alpha = 0$ and solving this quadratic equation we get $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ or $f(x) = -1$. We have chosen x such that $f(x) < -1$, so finally $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$.

Let $A = \{x \in (-\infty, 2\alpha): f(x) = -1\}$ and

$$B = \left\{x \in (-\infty, 2\alpha): f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right\}.$$

The sets A , B are disjoint, their union is $(-\infty, 2\alpha)$ and they are closed in $(-\infty, 2\alpha)$, since the function f is continuous. Connectedness of $(-\infty, 2\alpha)$ implies that $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$, so

$$f(x) = -1 \quad \text{for every } x < 2\alpha \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha} \quad \text{for every } x < 2\alpha.$$

Now we show that the first case leads to a contradiction. Indeed, in this case we would have $f(x) = \max\{-1, 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\}$ and we could choose $x_0 > 0, y_0 \leq 2\alpha$ and get $f(F_{f,p}(x_0, y_0)) = f(x_0)f(y_0) = -(1 - \frac{x_0}{\alpha}) < -1$. However, in the considered situation $f(\mathbb{R}) \cap (-\infty, -1) = \emptyset$, which implies the desired contradiction. \square

3. Main result

Our main result reads as follows:

THEOREM 4. *Let a continuous function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a continuous with respect to each variable function $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy equation (4). Then one of the following conditions is satisfied:*

- (1) $f \equiv 0$, p arbitrary continuous function or
- (2) $f \equiv 1$, p arbitrary continuous function or
- (3) $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ with $\alpha \neq 0$, p arbitrary continuous function or
- (4) $f(x) = \max\{0, 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\}$ with some $\alpha < 0$ and p being a continuous function satisfying conditions:
 - if $x, y \geq \alpha$ or $x = y \leq \alpha$ or $x = 0$ or $y = 0$, then $p(x, y)$ is arbitrary,
 - if $x < y \leq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha - x}{y - x}$,
 - if $y < x \leq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha - x}{y - x}$,
 - if $x \in (\alpha, 0)$, $y < \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$,
 - if $x > 0$, $y < \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$,
 - if $x < \alpha$, $y \in (\alpha, 0)$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha}{y}$,
 - if $x < \alpha$, $y > 0$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha}{y}$, or
- (5) $f(x) = \max\{0, 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\}$ with some $\alpha > 0$ and p being a continuous function satisfying conditions:
 - if $x, y \leq \alpha$ or $x = y \geq \alpha$ or $0 = y$ or $x = 0$, then $p(x, y)$ is arbitrary,
 - if $x > y \geq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha - x}{y - x}$,
 - if $y > x \geq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha - x}{y - x}$,
 - if $x < 0$, $y > \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$,
 - if $x \in (0, \alpha)$, $y > \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$,
 - if $x > \alpha$, $y \in (0, \alpha)$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha}{y}$,
 - if $x > \alpha$, $y < 0$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha}{y}$.

Conversely, if functions $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy one of the conditions (1) – (5), then f , p is a solution of equation (4).

PROOF. From Lemma 7, Theorem 2, Theorem 3 follows that if f is not identically equal neither to 0 nor to 1, then $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$ or $f(x) = \max\{0, 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\}$. Obviously, if $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}$, then the function p is arbitrary. Therefore, to complete the proof it is enough to show that in cases (4) and (5) the function p must satisfy conditions mentioned in, respectively, (4) or (5).

Now we consider the case $f(x) = \max\{0, 1 - \frac{x}{\alpha}\}$ and $\alpha < 0$. For $x, y \geq \alpha$ equation (4) is satisfied independently of $p(x, y)$. For $x, y \leq \alpha$ we have $f(F(x, y)) = 0$, so $F(x, y) \leq \alpha$ and $F(x, y) = p(x, y)(y - x) + x$. Thus, if $x < y \leq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha - x}{y - x}$; if $x = y \leq \alpha$, then $p(x, y)$ is arbitrary; if

$y < x \leq \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha-x}{y-x}$. For $x > \alpha$, $y < \alpha$ we have $f(x)f(y) = 0$, so $F(x, y) \leq \alpha$. The definition of F gives

$$\begin{aligned} F(x, y) &= p(x, y) \left(y - y \left(1 - \frac{x}{\alpha} \right) - x \right) + y \left(1 - \frac{x}{\alpha} \right) + x \\ &= -xp(x, y) \left(1 - \frac{y}{\alpha} \right) + x + y - \frac{xy}{\alpha} \leq \alpha, \end{aligned}$$

so $-xp(x, y) \frac{\alpha-y}{\alpha} \leq \frac{1}{\alpha}(\alpha-x)(\alpha-y)$. Thus, $p(0, y)$ are arbitrary; if $x \in (\alpha, 0)$, $y < \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \geq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$; if $x > 0$, $y < \alpha$, then $p(x, y) \leq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{x}$. Similarly, if $x < \alpha$, $y > \alpha$, then $F(x, y) \leq \alpha$ and

$$F(x, y) = p(x, y) \left(x \left(1 - \frac{y}{\alpha} \right) + y - x \right) + x = yp(x, y) \left(1 - \frac{x}{\alpha} \right) + x \leq \alpha,$$

so $yp(x, y) \frac{\alpha-x}{\alpha} \leq \alpha - x$. Thus, $p(x, 0)$ are arbitrary; if $x < \alpha$, $y \in (\alpha, 0)$, then $p(x, y) \leq \frac{\alpha}{y}$; if $x < \alpha$, $y > 0$, then $p(x, y) \geq \frac{\alpha}{y}$.

The case (5) is treated analogically to the case (4).

It is easy to check that function fulfilling one of the conditions (1)–(5) is a solution of (4). \square

In the end observe, that there exist a lot of continuous functions p which satisfy conditions from (4) or (5) of Theorem 4, e.g. for $\alpha > 0$ one may take

$$p_0(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha}{y}, & \text{for } |y| \geq \frac{\alpha}{2} \\ \frac{4y}{\alpha}, & \text{for } |y| < \frac{\alpha}{2}. \end{cases}$$

Let $p_1: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an arbitrary function continuous with respect to each variable and such that $p_1(x, y) \neq 0$ only for $x < 0$ and $y < 0$. Then the function $p_0 + p_1$ satisfies conditions (5) of Theorem 4, too.

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